



Lasers: The Femtosecond Pulse

Laser applications in geophysics range from making hydrographic depth soundings to a myriad of types of spectrographic measurements on crystals and polycrystalline materials. Reducing the emitted pulse width is a recurring need in many scientific laser applications. In determinations of ocean bottom depth and of mean sea level by airborne laser systems, a pulse width of one nanosecond (10^{-9} s) is barely sufficient to obtain the desired accuracy (≈ 30 cm). In crystal physics measurements, a pulse width of about one or two picoseconds (10^{-12} s) is required. An object of these specifications is to be able to operate at the time periods of ionic and molecular vibrations. It should be possible to study excitation and kinetic processes in a condensed material before they have relaxed or otherwise come to equilibrium.

According to a recent study at Bell Laboratories, researchers have now split the picosecond by producing an emitted-light pulse width of 50 femtoseconds (10^{-15} s), during which light travels a distance of about 0.3 μm from a new colliding-pulse ring dye laser system (*Physics Today*, December 1982). This laser uses nonlinear optics to 'chirp' the pulse, a technique something conceptually similar to techniques employed in geophysical applications of radar delay-line pulse generators. That the production of a femtosecond pulse represents a 'real' state of the art is evidenced by the fact that such a pulse is too short to measure by conventional techniques. Techniques that in effect use the pulse to measure itself are necessary (*Ultrashort Light Pulses*, S. L. Shapiro, Ed., Springer-Verlag, New York, 1977).

The chirping method of compressing microwave pulses is done by superimposing a linear frequency sweep on the carrier frequency. The method for compressing picosecond optical pulses derives the same result, but the chirping process to produce a time-dependent shift of the carrier frequency is done optically. As achieved by the Bell Laboratories group, the system employs a nonlinear optical fiber.

The process was first demonstrated a short time ago in nonlinear liquids. In these liquids the index of refraction changes in proportion to the intensity of light being transmitted. The nonlinear refractive index term results when the electric field produced by very intense light is of the same magnitude as the liquid's intramolecular field. Thus a light pulse consisting of an intense peak with leading and trailing edge tails is 'self phase modulated,' as there is a time-dependent shift of the carrier frequency. When an optical pulse is coupled with several tens of meters of single mode optical fiber, the pulse can be compressed in time. In the radar-microwave analogy the optically chirped pulse is fed through an optical delay line consisting of a dispersive grating system that allows the high-frequency end of the pulse to arrive in time with the lower-frequency leading edge. This optical-fiber and grating delay line system was initially described by H. Nakatsuka, D. Grishkowsky, and A. C. Balant of the IBM Research Laboratory (Phys. Rev. Lett., 47, 910, 1981).

The mode-locked, dye-laser systems, including cavity dumping and autocorrelation techniques to measure the final pulse width, are now available commercially though they were unknown a decade ago. The colliding-pulse ring dye laser employed by Bell Laboratories is a new variant designed to enhance the mode-locking effect.

The new systems are an attempt to meet two basic requirements of laser applications. High-power pulse widths that are extremely narrow in time provide the necessary precision for airborne-laser tracking systems. They provide 'the most intense way we have of interacting with condensed matter without destroying it,' according to C. V. Shank of Bell Laboratories (*Phys. Today*, op. cit.). The state of the laser art now stands at a 30 femtosecond pulse that has peak power in the Gigawatt range.—PMB

electronic structure of solids. XANES is new, and due to its complex nature, data on all but very simple solids have not yet been applied rigorously. Among the first XANES results on minerals is that reported by G. Knapp, B. Veal, H. Pau, and R. Klippert (*Solid State Comm.* 44, 1543, 1982) on perovskites, magnesiosilicates, and other silicates in the zircon and spinel groups. The interpretation of these results is still semiquantitative, being based on ground state and basic selection rule considerations. The results show, however, a strong correlation between near-edge spectra and crystal structure.

XANES, a lower energy extension of EXAFS, is concentrated within 30 eV of a given X-ray absorption edge; in some instances, the two techniques coincide. As described by Knapp et al., "... XANES directly probes unoccupied states of the photoionized ion which occur at energies near the Fermi level E_F ". This study found that the near-edge spectral patterns of the phases containing 3d elements were essentially identical within a structure type, spinel, perovskite, rock salt, or zircon. The patterns were not dependent on the particular transition element even though the K-edge energies differed by several keV. Further, there was no dependence on differences in the occupied 3d electron populations (d^0 to d^9 were compared), but this result was consistent with dipole selection rules and was to be expected. The spectra are most sensitive to empty states (above E_F), but do not change in the number of d electrons for increasing atomic number would have little effect as well. The spectra are unusually consistent though, considering the range of composition and structure.

In certain spectra there is some indication of band complexities arising from transitions to a $p-d$ mixed empty state. The case, $p-d$ orbital mixing, results from a lack of a center of symmetry in tetrahedrally coordinated groups.

The results of the study by Knapp et al. indicate that the XANES technique can be used to deduce the valence states of cations. Their local site symmetry and coordination number can also be determined as characteristic. These results are important, because application of this new technique may pave the way to determining the coordination of ions in complex mineral structures for the first time. Numerous cases exist in rather common minerals where the coordination with oxygen of cations remains unknown or poorly determined. The technique, like XPS, requires a very large X-ray flux. XANES studies may be among the first mineralogical studies to be done with synchrotron radiation when facilities become available. —PMB

Fulbright Program

Senior Scholar Fulbright awards for university teaching and postdoctoral research in 1984-85 are available in all academic fields for terms of 3-10 months in more than 100 countries. Applications and information may be obtained after April 15, 1983, on college and university campuses from the graduate dean, chief academic officer, or the international programs office. Interested persons also may write to the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, 11 Dupont Circle, Suite 300, Washington, DC 20036 (telephone 202-893-4985). Please specify the country and field of interest.

Deadlines for submission of applications are June 15, 1989, for American Republics, Australia, and New Zealand, and September 15, 1989, for Africa, Asia, Europe, and the Middle East.

Research in India

Research in India

The Indo-U.S. Subcommission on Education and Culture is offering 12 long-term (6 to 10 months) and 9 short-term (2 to 3 months) research awards for 1984-85. The fellowship program aims to open new channels of communication between U.S. and Indian academic and professional groups and to encourage a wider range of research activity between the two countries.

The fellowships, without restriction to field, include a stipend ranging from \$1800 to \$1500 per month, depending on academic and professional achievement and seniority; \$350 per month is payable in dollars, with the balance paid in rupees. In addition, an allowance is awarded for study and travel in India and for International travel. Long-term fellows also receive an international travel allowance for dependents of \$100-\$250 per month, in rupees, for dependents; and a supplementary research allowance of up to \$4,000 rupees.

This is a summary of *SEAN Bulletin*, 8(1), January 3, 1983, a publication of the Smithsonian Institution. The complete Mt. St. Helens, Ol Doinyo Lengai, and Usutu reports are included. The earthquake and meteorite fall reports are excerpts. The complete bulletin is available in the microfiche edition of *Eos* as a microfiche supplement or as a paper reprint. Subscriptions to the *SEAN Bulletin* are also available. For the microfiche, order document E83-002 at \$2.50 from AGU Fulfillment, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC 20009. For reprints, order *SEAN Bulletin* (give dates and volume number) through AGU Separates; for those who do not have a deposit number for those who do not have a deposit number, \$2.00 per copy; additional copies of each issue number are \$1.00. For a subscription, order *SEAN Bulletin* from AGU Fulfillment. The price is \$18.00 for 12 monthly issues mailed to a United States address; \$28.00 (U.S.) if mailed elsewhere. Order must be prepaid.

Mt. St. Helens (Washington): New lake ex-
 tended onto composite lava dome.
 Kilauea (Hawaii): Major eruption in middle of
 Rift Zone now continue.
 Long Valley (California): Seismicity declines;
 intense January swarm was accompanied by
 strains of 3-4 ppm and uplifts of up to 7 cm
 in epicentral area.
 El Chichón (Mexico): Strong H₂S emissions
 but no new explosions; cloud data to 76°N;
 unusual surges and surges.
 Pacaya (Guatemala): Minor flank lava emis-
 sion.
 Santiaguito (Guatemala): Occasional explo-
 sions; rockfalls.
 Costa Rica: Temperature and gas data at
 Poás, Turrialba, and Irazú.
 Ol Doinyo Lengai (Tanzania): Vapor and
 tephra cloud.
 Langila (New Britain): Several vulcanian ex-
 plosions per day.
 Manam (Bismarck Sea): Little volcanic activi-
 ty; steady, moderate seismicity.
 Ulawun (New Britain): Weak vapor emission;
 seismicity increases.
 Ruapehu (New Zealand): Summit inflation
 ends and crater lake temperature low; simi-
 lar pattern observed before hydrothermal
 eruptions in 1980 and 1981.
 White Island (New Zealand): Abrupt defla-
 tion.
 Sakurajima (Japan): Increased explosive ac-
 tivity, ash ejection.
 Usu (Japan): Decreased seismic activity; neg-
 ligible ground deformation.

Alt. St. Helens Volcano, Cascade Range, S Washington, USA (46.20°N, 122.18°W). All times are local (GMT - 8 h). Increases in SO₂ emission, deformation, and seismicity preceded a series of small explosions and the extrusion of a new lobe onto the composite lava dome, the first since August 1982.

The rate of SO₂ emission, which had remained very low for several months, tripled between measurements on January 13 and 15 and remained between 60 and 110 tonnes/day through the end of the month. About 20 small, shallow earthquakes were recorded January 17-18, but seismicity declined and remained at background levels for the next 2 weeks. Heavy snow in the crater made deformation measurements impossible on the S and E sides of the dome, but very slow acceleration in the rate of outward movement of the dome's northern side began in mid-January. A few small gas and ash emissions occurred in late January.

Gas monitoring on January 30 showed that SO_2 emission had increased to roughly twice the rate of the previous 2 weeks, and SO_2 flux ranged from 170–260 tons/day through February 7. On January 31 a pronounced acceleration was measured in the outward movement of the northern side of the dome. Points on the western side of the dome, usually the area of most rapid outward movement, showed little such activity but sagged downward several tens of centimeters. A gradual, slight increase in the number of seismic events began February 1, but seismicity remained relatively weak, reaching about the level of the January 17–18 activity.

At 2339 on February 2 and 0256 the next morning, explosions sent plumes containing small amounts of ash to about 6 km altitude. A pilot reported that the cloud top was at 8 km altitude at 0015 on February 3. GOES East satellite images showed the plumes moving slowly toward the northwest. At 0430 a cloud about 150 km diameter remained centered over the volcano, but it had begun to diffuse 30 minutes later and by 0530 had reached nearly to Puget Sound, about 100 km from the volcano. Ashfall was reported at Olympia, near the S end of Puget Sound. During a pre dawn flight February 3, geologists observed that the explosions had created a small notch in the upper eastern flank of the dome. Within the crater the deposits from these explosions showed a complex stratigraphy. Rare brecciated bombs were found at the top of the deposits. A laterally-directed component from one or both of the explosions melted snow on the crater's eastern floor and wall, producing a mudflow that reached Spirit Lake. The ash column from a third explosion on February 3 at 1728 reached about 4.5 km altitude. This explosion enlarged the eastern flank notch to 60–100 m deep and 80–100 m wide. Deformation data of February 3 and 5 showed continued acceleration of outward movement of the northern side of the dome, reaching 5–6 cm/day by February 5. Visual observations showed severe deformation of the eastern side of the dome, where a large wedge of rock just south of the notch had tipped to and on several meters. Localized seismic events stopped February 5 and only events typically associated with steam emissions and turkfiles were detected during the next several days.

Later, February 3, the USGS and the University of Washington issued an extended outlook for visitors, noting that an eruption was likely within the next week and could include a major explosion. Activity, however, prevented observations until about noon on February 7, when geologists observed the extrusion of a new lobe of lava from the floor of the eastern flank notch. It advanced mainly toward the east, filling the notch, and by afternoon had reached the top of the talus pile at the base of the dome. From the air, geologists estimated that the new lobe extended roughly 100 m E-W and 50 m N-S. A small explosion occurred from the dome at 1640 on February 7.

Weather conditions prevented access to the crater for the next few days, but seismographs recorded rockfall events, suggesting that the new lobe continued to advance. Glimpses of the dome beneath low weather clouds February 14 indicated that the new lobe was still growing.

Information contacts: Tom Casadevall, Chris Newhall, Donald Swanson, and Steven Brantley, USGS Cascades Volcano Observatory, 5400 MacArthur Blvd., Vancouver, WA 98661 USA; Steven Malone, Graduate Program in Geophysics, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195 USA; Dennis Haller, NOAA/NESDIS, Camp Springs, MD 20723 USA.

Ol Doinyo Lengai Volcano, N Tanzania
(2.751°S, 35.902°E). All times are local (GMT + 3 h). On January 6 at first light (about 0600), Philip Sanders observed a cloud of vapor and fine tephra, not present the previous day, emerging from the volcano. During 12 hours of observation, the size of the plume gradually increased, but there were no audible explosions. Clouds obscured the summit the next morning and no additional observations are available. Ol Doinyo Lengai's last reported eruption was July–October 1987.

Information contact: John E. Sanders, Department of Geology, Barnard College, Columbia University, 606 W 120th St., New York, NY 10027 USA.

Usu Volcano, Hokkaido, Japan (42.33°N, 140.33°E). Seismicity and ground deformation at Usu ended in spring 1982, after 58 months of activity. The monthly number of recorded seismic events had gradually declined since the major eruption in 1977 (see *SEAN Bulletin*, 2 (8–9)), but remained above the background level through 1981, when approximately 308 seismic events were recorded per month (see *SEAN Bulletin*, 7 (3)). Ground deformation had also continued since the eruption. The rate of uplift of the cryodome decreased from about 2 cm per day in 1980 to about 0.8 in 1981. Northwest lateral movement of the northern flank also continued through 1981.

In 1982, seismic activity decreased to the background level of about 10 events per month by April; 496 events were recorded in January, 231 in February, 79 in March, 10 in April, and 11 in May. Ground deformation has been negligible since April 1982.

Information contact: Office of Volcanic Observation, Seismological Division, Japan Meteorological Agency, 1-3-4 Ote-machi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 100, Japan.

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the magmatic intrusion 10-15 km in length (i.e., the thickness of the magma chamber) and 1-2 km in width (i.e., the thickness of the magma dike), and the plutonic apophysis 10-15 km in length and 1-2 km in width. The model includes areal deformation maps, cross sections, and systematic variations in the deformation parameters within the context of various Volcan, Havel, and other tectonic zones. The model is based on the elliptical deformation patterns resulting from the collapse of the magma chamber and the subsequent increase in depth. However, the geometric relationships between the magma chamber and the plutonic apophysis are complex and may vary in complex ways to produce similar deformation patterns. The model has been used to explain the distribution of magma within the Volcan, Havel, and other tectonic zones. The model has been used to explain the distribution of magma within the Volcan, Havel, and other tectonic zones. The model has been used to explain the distribution of magma within the Volcan, Havel, and other tectonic zones.

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Researchers in the field of mineral physics have become aware of new analytical techniques for studying the electronic structure of solids; one such technique is the X ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) method. In this technique the fine structure of the X ray K-edge, for example, can be employed as a critical probe of the intricacies of a crystal structure (P. A. Lee, P. H. Citrin, P. Eisenberger, and B. M. Kincaid, *Rev. Mod. Phys.*, 53, 799, 1981).

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Greenland Sea Ice/Ocean Margin

Miles G. McPhee
Introduction

One of the fundamental obstacles to understanding both weather and long term climate variability of polar and subpolar regions lies in knowing what controls the position and behavior of the boundary between open and ice-covered ocean, the marginal ice zone (MIZ). Over the seasonal cycle, variation in sea ice coverage of the world ocean is about 25 million km², roughly 7% of the total area; thus a significant portion of the ocean is at some time during the year part of the MIZ.

From the point of view of air-sea interaction, the MIZ is a very complex system: an interface between ocean and atmosphere with potentially extreme horizontal and vertical temperature gradients and large variations in mechanical properties. The "fokker-in-the-deck" is, of course, sea ice—it modifies momentum transfer from the atmosphere; drastically alters surface albedo; serves as an efficient thermal insulator; dampens surface wave motion; and, because it is relatively fresher than sea water, may substantially change both temperature and salinity structure in the upper ocean by melting or freezing. Sea ice is highly mobile in response to surface wind, capable of traveling tens of kilometers per day. It thus represents a negative source of both salt and heat that can be advected long distances across water-mass boundaries by atmospheric systems. It is estimated (e.g., Hibler, 1979) that fresh water exported from the Arctic Basin through Fram Strait as sea ice (about 10¹⁵ m³ s⁻¹) is roughly comparable to the total continental runoff entering the basin. In this sense, the MIZ of the North Atlantic, despite its limited area, is the terminus of a vast territorial watershed.

Over the past decade, field experiments (notably the Arctic Ice Dynamics Joint Experiment) and theoretical modeling of sea ice and the adjacent atmospheric and oceanic boundary layers have dramatically increased our understanding of the behavior of ice-covered oceans. At the same time, there has been much interest in open-ocean frontal and mixed layer processes. In 1979 a workshop on the Seasonal Sea Ice Zone, organized by Wilford Weeks, provided the first systematic, multidisciplinary approach to identifying problems faced in understanding seasonal sea ice and provided experimental techniques for addressing them (Anderson et al., 1980).

In subsequent meetings a research strategy was formulated from which emerged a structure known as MIZEX (Marginal Ice Zone Experiment). MIZEX is an international, interdisciplinary project aimed at studying specific processes in the MIZ as part of a more comprehensive effort to understand how the annual and long-term variability of polar ice margins relate to large-scale atmospheric and oceanic circulation (Untersteiner, N. Air-sea ice interaction research program for the 1980s, unpublished report, Applied Physics Laboratory, University of Washington, Seattle, 1983). The primary focus of MIZEX is the Greenland Sea ice edge in the region north and west of Svalbard, where most of the exchange between the Arctic Ocean and the rest of the world ocean occurs. The general research strategy, described by Wadhams et al. (1981), includes field experiments planned for the summers of 1983 and 1984 (MIZEX 83 and MIZEX 84) (Johannessen, Hibler, et al., in press) with follow-on winter and summer experiments later in the decade. Complementary work is planned for the ice edge in the Bering Sea (MIZEX WEST), as described in *EOS*, December 21, 1982, p. 1220.

Scientific Considerations

For conceptual and organizational clarity, the MIZEX effort has been broken into seven subgroups: remote sensing, meteorology, ice, oceanography, biology, acoustics, and modeling. Some of the major problems and proposed work in each discipline are described below; more complete descriptions may be found in Wadhams et al. (1981); and Johannessen, Hibler, et al. (in press).

Remote Sensing

Given the extent and inaccessibility of areas affected by the MIZ, remote sensing is the only practical way of applying increased understanding from experiments like MIZEX to long-term monitoring and routine prediction of ice-edge characteristics. Eddy-like structure along the ice edge in the Greenland Sea has been shown by LANDSAT image (see cover). Similar images have been attained with microwave sensors (e.g., Johannessen, Johannessen, et al., in press), demonstrating the feasibility of all-weather, all-season remote observation. If MIZEX succeeds, for example, in providing reasonable estimates of cross-edge heat and mass exchange in eddy or banding processes, then routine surveillance of such features will provide much improved estimates of large scale heat and mass budgets.

From an experimental standpoint, remote sensing provides the overall view necessary to identify special features for intensive study. Because persistent cloudiness is anticipated, microwave sensors (SAR, SLAR, and Passive) will be used extensively. Studies of ice deformation obtained by tracking identifiable natural and artificial targets will complement buoy and transponder measurements.

There will also be a concerted effort to measure and understand the effect of changing surface conditions in the MIZ on scattering and emission properties.

Meteorology

The lower boundary of the atmosphere across the MIZ changes from a maritime regime, with low albedo and moderate temperature, to a highly reflective and, during much of the year, very cold regime. These changes, combined with dramatic variation in surface roughness, can impose large gradients in radiative fluxes, in surface stress, and in turbulent moisture and heat fluxes. Over pack ice, the boundary layer is usually stably stratified, with low, strong inversions. If this cold air is advected over open water with a strong temperature contrast, turbulence is intensified. By the same token, warm air advected over the cold surface is stabilized, with decreasing turbulence levels. Ice is generally thought to be rougher than the ocean surface, so that for the same surface wind and stability, turbulent drag over pack ice is greater than over the open sea; furthermore, roughness of the ice itself is often increased within the MIZ by rifting and pulverization. Sorting out these various effects presents a considerable challenge but is important for understanding how the ice and underlying water respond to the wind.

The MIZEX experiments will employ a variety of meteorological instruments for surface layer studies, deployed from ships and ice floes, along with aircraft boundary-layer measurements, radiosonde launches, acoustic sounders, closely spaced surface pressure arrays, and buoy-mounted weather stations. An active atmospheric modeling component will complement the field measurements.

Ice

Sea-ice studies in the MIZ divide roughly into two classes: one concerned primarily with the thermodynamic growth, decay, and internal structure of ice; the other concerned with the mechanical properties of sea ice as a material affected by dynamical forces, mainly wind and current.

Ice in the MIZ is broken into much finer individual floes and pieces than are found in the interior pack. Attenuation of surface wave energy by the pack ice is certainly a major factor in this break-up; gradients in other forces, such as horizontal current shear, may also contribute. These interrelated areas of open water not only change the mechanical properties of the ice, but also modify the radiation balance and the mean surface temperature sensed by the atmosphere. In summer, melt rates may be enhanced by increased insolation between floes; in winter, ice production is increased by continual opening and closing.

Water near the margin may contain more sensible heat than is usually found in the Arctic mixed layer, giving oceanic heat flux a greater role in the thermodynamic energy balance that controls ice thickness. The mass and energy balance of ice regulates buoyancy flux into the oceanic boundary layer; thus, if oceanic sensible heat is available, the growth rate can serve as an important feedback parameter. Kinematics of ice motion in the MIZ are also of much interest. Buoy and satellite imagery studies indicate comparatively large

shear normal to the ice edge and divergence along the East Greenland Drift Current. MIZEX will also study attenuation of inertial and tidal oscillatory motion.

Measurements planned include detailed studies of changes in mass, concentration, and floe size distribution, along with energy budget observations and properties of ice measured both in situ and over long-term extensive laboratory analysis. Radar positioning techniques and satellite navigation will be used to study kinematics of the ice drift field with an array of drifting buoys. In addition, mean motion, wave and collision accelerations, ablation, and other properties will be studied at the extreme ice edge, including eddies and bands.

Oceanography

Modification of the upper ocean across the ice edge is often extreme, with large changes in temperature and salinity, large horizontal gradients in vertical density structure (with corresponding geostrophic shear), and rapid variation in surface momentum and buoyancy flux. At times, the MIZ coincides with the surface manifestation of a permanent, oceanic front (e.g., the East Greenland Polar Front), which may in turn be tied to a topographic feature (the shelf break); but as is the case in many marginal seas and in most of the Southern Ocean, the ice edge itself often forms a rapidly migrating, oceanic frontal zone. These fronts exhibit a variety of interesting features: eddies (see cover figure and Johannessen, Johannessen, et al., in press), fine structure (Paquette and Bourke, 1981), jets, and meanders. A summertime Soviet project at the Chukchi Sea MIZ noted a jet, directed along the ice edge so that open water was on the right, that persisted for the duration of the experiment regardless of wind direction (Nikolayev, 1973). The jet, which meandered on scales of about 90 km, probably resulted from geostrophic adjustment between relatively warm and saline water from the south and a lens of water freshened by ice melt.

Ice-edge upwelling and other mesoscale circulations appear in the MIZ; they are thought to be driven by surface gradients in stress or buoyancy flux. The Chukchi ice-edge jet mentioned above seems to fall in the

latter class, since it was apparently independent of local wind. On the other hand, Burkhardt et al. (1979) observed a large upwelling event north of Svalbard in early winter (Fig. 1), which they attributed to a surface stress gradient much like coastal upwelling. In this case it is hypothesized that sea ice, by means of its greater upwelling surface roughness, impacts more momentum to its underlying boundary layer, causing Ekman divergence at the ice edge.

Boundary layer and surface layer processes are also an active area of research. Rapid melting at the ice margin can yield in the upper ocean an input of fresh water at a rate comparable to that of a torrential rainfall, creating a stable boundary layer analogous to the nocturnal boundary layer of the atmosphere. Althoff (in press) offers the resulting reduction in drag on the ice underside as an explanation for divergence of bands of sea ice away from the main pack under off-ice winds. Absorption and reflection of surface gravity wave energy is also a significant factor in the MIZ, invoked to account for the relatively sharp ice edge often observed. Wave radiation stress has also been suggested as a primary factor in the formation of ice-edge bands (e.g., Wadhams, in press).

An ambitious oceanographic measurement program is planned for the MIZEX experiments, including current meter moorings, both bottom anchored and suspended from the surface; extensive hydrography from ship and helicopter; profiling current meter systems; boundary layer turbulence measurements; expendable temperature and velocity probes; high frequency acoustic sounding; and Doppler acoustic current meter mapping. In addition, deployment of surface and subsurface (e.g., drifters) is planned, with CODAR measurements of surface velocity on each side of the ice margin. Later studies, which have recently been used to identify residence times of subsurface water north of Fram Strait (Ondul et al., 1982) will be extended to the MIZ.

Biology

In high latitude biological systems, the ice edge region has higher levels of primary productivity than surrounding waters. Albrecht

(1981) shows that over a third of the total primary productivity in the southeast Bering Sea comes in the single month of May, coinciding with the ice edge bloom. Associated with the bloom is a concentration of marine mammals and birds at the ice edge, with some species adapted specifically to the ice-edge habitat. There are several competing hypotheses for the presence of the bloom, among them: (a) a benevolent environment furnished by a shallow, high-nutrient, mixed layer stabilized by melt water; and (b) increased nutrient levels associated with ice-edge upwelling. Recent work describing the halocline of the Arctic Ocean (e.g., Agaard et al., 1981) has emphasized the role of the broad Arctic shelves in maintaining the cold, saline layer of water that separates the relatively fresh Arctic mixed layer from underlying Atlantic water. Presumably, modified shelf water upwelled by processes at the ice edge could supply the needed elevated nutrient levels. If such upwelling is intermittent, the biological signal from each event may provide a "memory" that is lacking in measurements of the physical properties alone.

Biological measurements in MIZEX will include phytoplankton biomass, phytoplankton species, nutrients, zooplankton biomass and diversity, and a variety of chemical components.

Acoustics

The acoustic climate of the MIZ is complex. Ice itself is noisy in the region where surface wave energy is attenuated by jostling and fracturing of ice floes. Ambient levels are highest at the ice edge but fall off faster in the iceward direction, an effect attributed by Diachok (see Anderson et al., 1980) to much higher reflection losses at the ice-water interface compared with the open sea surface.

The sound-speed profile is subject to large variations caused by frontal and eddy structure in the MIZ; these variations degrade horizontal coherence of acoustic wave fronts, and therefore the performance of directional acoustic arrays. Since acoustic tomography is becoming an important tool for measuring

eddy structure in the MIZ and because synoptic ice-roughness mapping is possible by means of backscatter techniques, it is important to determine variability and predictability of sound-speed structure.

Acoustic measurements in MIZEX will include fixed and free drifting omnibearing arrays, ambient noise including directional information, a tomography experiment, plus seismic reflection and refraction experiments.

Modeling

Credible models of MIZ processes across the whole range of disciplines is a major goal in the MIZEX effort. A partial list includes: sea-ice radiation, thermodynamics, ridging, breaking, and rheology; atmospheric and oceanic boundary layers; eddy generation; frontogenesis and maintenance of fronts; quasi-steady, mesoscale circulations in atmosphere and ocean; fine structure and cross-frontal mixing; biological processes; internal waves; sound path and acoustic tomography; and many others.

In addition to their role as end products, models will be used prior to the experiment and in the field to optimize sampling strategies.

Organization and Planned Field Work

The experiment's basic organizational body, the MIZEX Science Group, consists of seven "Discipline Chairmen" and nine "National Coordinators" assisted by executive and logistics managers. The Science Group is responsible for determining overall scientific directions and for serving as liaison between scientists and national advisory and funding agencies. Two project offices and a logistics office have been established, publication of a newsletter has commenced, and a MIZEX Bulletin for presentation and discussion of scientific matters is planned.

The MIZEX 83 field project is scheduled for June–July 1983, beginning in the Greenland Sea north of Svalbard (the precise location will depend on ice conditions). The ice-strengthened research vessel *Polarbjørn* will spend about 6 weeks on site, functioning first as a drifting ice station and then performing measurements in the region just seaward of the ice edge. She will be joined by about ten days by the icebreaker *Polarstern* for cooperative work in and near the MIZ. The Norwegian Polar Institute vessel *Lance* will also perform cooperative measuring programs in the vicinity. A number of fixed-wing aircraft from the United States, Canada, France, Denmark, and Norway will carry out remote sensing missions, and two helicopters will aid scientists in deployment and sampling operations.

MIZEX 84 is a much larger project, with five vessels and numerous aircraft and satellite platforms on hand for most of the 6-week field program in June–August 1984. One ship will serve as a drifting station within the ice pack for the entire experiment, Johannessen, Hibler, et al. (in press) describe the scientific plan in detail.

Experience gained during MIZEX 83 will be used to design the 1984 experiment. Following 2 or 3 years of data assimilation, there will be additional summer and winter experiments in the Greenland Sea.

Operational planning for MIZEX 84 is under way and will be completed at a meeting in Bremerhaven, Federal Republic of Germany, in November 1983. Discipline workshops will be held this spring to encourage input to the planning process from all interested scientists. Specific plans or suggestions should be discussed as soon as possible with the discipline chairmen or national coordinators, whose names and addresses and information on administrative matters may be obtained from Dean Horn, MIZEX Executive Officer, Arctic Programs Code 425AR, Office of Naval Research, 800 N. Quincy Street, Arlington, VA 22217 (telephone: 202-696-4118).

The major U.S. sponsor of MIZEX is the Office of Naval Research with support from the National Science Foundation and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Other sponsors include: the German Polar Institute, the Norwegian Polar Institute, Bedford Institute of Oceanography, the National Environmental Research Council of Canada, the Canadian Center for Remote Sensing, and the British Meteorological Office.

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News & Announcements

Mysteries of Bottom Water

Ocean bottom water has historically represented a constant physical entity to most geophysicists. The ocean floor has long been modeled as a classic isothermal, semi-infinite surface in geophysical calculations. Peter Rhines of Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution recently said about the subject of bottom water, "We've been trained to imagine that the deep ocean is steady. . . . It's not so much a belief, but a practice that became a way of teaching" (*Science*, November 12, 1982).

It is now becoming well known that, over thousands of years, bottom water is not as stable as once thought. Large bodies of cold water are not really stable over even a decade. The large bodies move, the water itself is renewed, and as a result, the temperature and salinity of ocean bottom water changes regularly. New data point to a less than steady state condition for the water at the ocean bottom.

It has always been assumed, and recently documented, that the deep sea communicates chemically and thermally with surface water. The surface water is mixed by current action and weather effects also can be translated by deep ocean circulation patterns. A rather important concept that now has become suspect, however, was that bottom water remained unchanged in spite of being replaced regularly. If the temperature is not constant in time, an important boundary condition for many geophysical models is violated. The heat flow vector can be affected and thus the thermal history of the interface must be modeled accurately. The new studies of deep ocean water could offer the possibility of constructing such a model.

R. A. Kerr recently discussed the North Atlantic data of the Transit Tracers in the Ocean (TTO) program, which were presented at the EWing Symposium in October 1982 and a recent analysis of temperature and salinity observations along 36°N and 24°N latitudes. He said, "This water was definitely different, from run counter to the assumptions of the past 100 years of oceanography. This first detection of changes in the presumably immutable deep sea should aid the understanding of how the ocean manages to renew the water of even its deepest recesses" (*Science*, Nov. 12, 1982).

The studies being done can continuously be updated and can make reference to the surveys made during the International Geophysical Year (IGY) in 1958. The TTO program is a broad study to track the depth penetration of products of nuclear fallout, aerosol pollutants, and the like in the oceans. Temperature and salinity data obtained during TTO cruises in the North Atlantic indicated that all water deeper than a few hundred meters north of 50°N latitude and south of Iceland has become a few parts per thousand less saline, and a few tenths of a degree colder. These data are samples of water that originates from the Labrador, Greenland, and Norwegian Seas and enters into the deep Atlantic.

The survey along 36°N and 24°N followed the tracks of IGY surveys. The water at depths between 500 and 3000 m has become warmer by tenths of a degree Celsius. But above 500 m and deeper than 3000 m, extending to the ocean floor, the water was observed to be colder. How these changes might be related to those found in the North Atlantic is not known.

The changes observed are small relative to changes that drive ocean circulation. Nonetheless their magnitude must be known and their trends plotted accurately in time. Potentially there also could be a great deal to learn from these findings about the interaction between the atmosphere and the deep ocean. —PMB

Laser Sounding

Hydrographic surveying along the coastline must be done frequently because ocean bottom topography is under constant change. In a recent discussion in *Naval Research News*, M. B. White of the Office of Naval Research compared the traditional shipboard acoustic sounding method with the new Hydrographic Airborne Laser Sounder (HALS) being developed for the Navy and the National Oceanic Survey. The shipboard system can be described by two words: slow, costly. According to a recent summary of White's discussion (*Lasers & Applications*, December 1982), the Defense Mapping Agency, which produces most civilian and military charts in the United States, now has a 200 ship-year backlog. The new HALS system will be 6 times less expensive to operate and 100 times faster. The questions remaining now are related to the type of airborne laser system that can perform the task, in a field of rapidly changing technology.

Sounding the bottom along coastlines can be done efficiently by a small, fixed wing aircraft carrying a state-of-the-art laser system that weighs about 600 kg. As an aircraft flies along an electronically positioned grid system, a laser emits pulses in the visible light region. The pulses are reflected both from the ocean surface and bottom, the difference being the slant depth. The time delays of the two reflected pulses must be measured with extraordinary precision. To achieve a hydrographic depth accuracy of ± 30 cm on the temporal laser pulse width must be on the order of about a nanosecond. For civilian requirements a repetition rate of approximately 400 Hz is acceptable. There are several categories of laser—solid state, metal-vapor, and gas types—that can meet the requirements. The types described by White include solid state green, copper-vapor, eximer, and UV-pumped lasers.

The lasers are new, and the techniques to make them perform are being updated regularly. For example, the solid-state neodymium-doped yttrium aluminum garnet (Nd:YAG) laser normally emits a continuous, rather than pulsed, beam in the near infrared region. For hydrographic sounding the frequency of the output is doubled, the cavity is Q-switched to emit pulses, and the pulse is narrowed by a cavity dumper. Other solid state lasers now being tested can be tuned to emit over a range of wavelengths.

Whether of the solid state or (for higher repetition rates) gas medium type, the new lasers employ mode-locking principals. These systems employ state-of-the-art techniques such as cavity dumping, tunable dye laser intermediate stages, and other methods to shape the pulses to a nanosecond or shorter width. For example a high-Q resonant cavity is placed in the system, and pulses are stored until a sufficient peak intensity is achieved. Fast "dumping" or release systems are used to extract very short pulses.

The color ranges required for hydrographic purposes are in the blue-green (deep ocean) or longer wavelength (shallow waters) spectrum. At green to yellow-green wavelengths the clouds algae-laden waters are relatively clear. Of course, tunable lasers are used, but there are a number of other laser spectral tricks to produce pulsed output in the vicinity of 500 nm. For example so-called wavelength conversion methods such as employing successive Raman-effect upshifts or downshifts can be efficient for gas laser systems.

The new systems will begin to be operative in the mid 1980's. A new variety of lasers are to become available at that time for an instant upgrade.—PMB

Ocean Data Tapes

Magnetic tape copies of the two data sets used to prepare the *Southern Ocean Atlas* (EOS, August 3, 1982, p. 595) are available from the National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC).

The atlas data set is a screened and edited set of hydrographic station data that includes 6,319 stations. The grid point data set was produced by interpolating the hydrographic data to the points of a circumpolar grid system between 30°S and 80°S with 47 standard levels in the vertical direction.

Data tapes cost \$110 for each set. For additional information, contact NODC, NOAA/NESDIS/EOC21, 2001 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC 20238 (telephone: 202-854-7600).

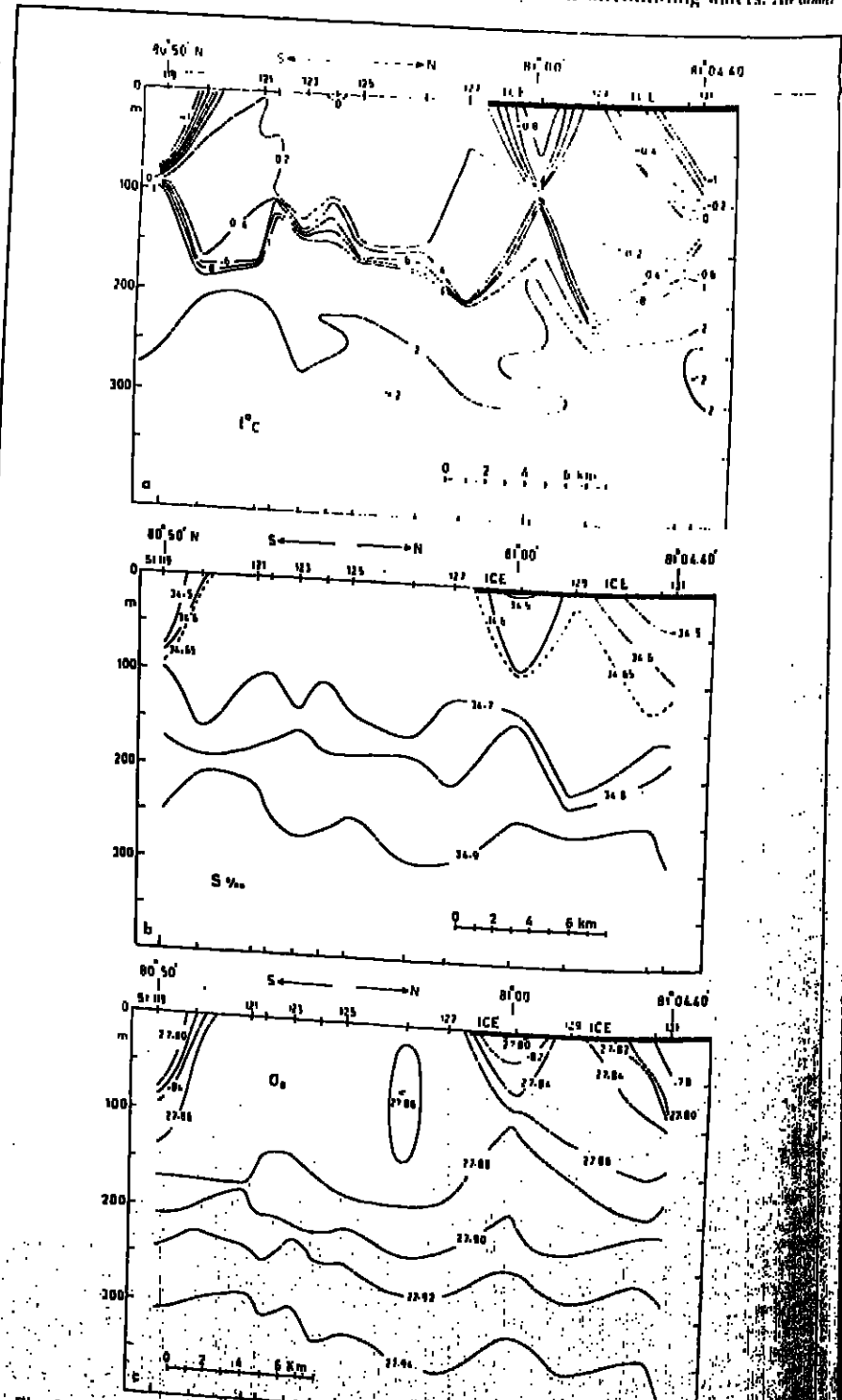


Fig. 1. Sections of temperature, salinity, and σ_t across the Greenland Sea margin zone on December 3, 1977, from Buckley et al. (1979).

Cover. LANDSAT image of the sea-ice edge in the Greenland Sea. See The Oceanography Report, this issue. The Greenland Meridian runs north from the bottom right corner of the image at about 60° to the left of vertical. The eddy-like feature centered near 79°40'N, 8°E, is roughly 90 km across. To the east of the 9°E meridian, warm surface water is apparently advected into the ice pack; while to the west, ice and cold water are swept toward open water. Eddies along the marginal ice zone are not uncommon in satellite imagery. However, the feature shown here is notable in that it appears to coincide with the bathymetric depression known as the Møller Deep. (Photo courtesy of N. Untersteiner.)

Wiley (Int Geological Survey), 1981 (Papers
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The creation of the 50th anniversary of the
International Association of Hydrological
Sciences, the 100th and 50th anniversaries of the
First and Second International Polar Years, and
the 75th anniversary of the International
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(Pollution, environmental threats, ecosystems).
(Hydrological Sciences, Water, Atmosphere)

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8150 Plate tectonics

Walter J. Heikkila (Center for Space Science,
University of Texas at Dallas, Richardson,
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are comparable with the data we used. We have redone the analysis using morphology and gravity data published later (1981), and find that the observations between 1970 and 1980 are

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